

CHRONIC TOXICITY SUMMARY

1,4-DIOXANE

(Synonym: dihydro-*p*-dioxin, diethylene dioxide, *p*-dioxane, glycolethylene ether)

CAS Registry Number: 123-91-1

I. Chronic Toxicity Summary

<i>Inhalation reference exposure level</i>	3,000 mg/m³ (800 ppb)
<i>Critical effects</i>	Liver, kidney, hematologic changes in rats
<i>Hazard index target(s)</i>	Alimentary system; kidney; circulatory system

II. Chemical Property Summary (HSDB, 1995; 1999; CRC, 1994)

<i>Description</i>	Colorless liquid with a faint, pleasant odor
<i>Molecular formula</i>	C ₄ H ₈ O ₂
<i>Molecular weight</i>	88.10 g/mol
<i>Boiling point</i>	101.5 °C
<i>Melting point</i>	11.8°C
<i>Vapor pressure</i>	37 torr @ 25°C
<i>Solubility</i>	Miscible with water, aromatic solvents, and oils
<i>Kow</i>	0.537
<i>Conversion factor</i>	3.60 µg/m ³ per ppb at 25°C

III. Major Uses and Sources

1,4-Dioxane (dioxane), a cyclic ether, is used as a degreasing agent, as a component of paint and varnish removers, and as a wetting and dispersion agent in the textile industry. Dioxane is used as a solvent in chemical synthesis, as a fluid for scintillation counting, and as a dehydrating agent in the preparation of tissue sections for histology (Grant and Grant, 1987; HSDB, 1995). The annual statewide emissions from facilities reporting under the Air Toxics Hot Spots Act in California based on the most recent inventory were estimated to be 155,549 pounds of 1,4-dioxane (CARB, 1999).

IV. Effects of Human Exposure

Dioxane is absorbed by all routes of administration (HSDB, 1995). In humans, the major metabolite of dioxane is β-hydroxyethoxyacetic acid (HEAA) and the kidney is the major route of excretion (Young *et al.*, 1976). The enzyme(s) responsible for HEAA formation has not been studied, but data from Young *et al.* (1977) indicate saturation does not occur up to an inhalation exposure of 50 ppm for 6 hours. Under these conditions the half-life for dioxane elimination is 59 min (plasma) and 48 min (urine). Although physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modeling suggests HEAA is the ultimate toxicant in rodents exposed to dioxane by ingestion, the same modeling procedure does not permit such a distinction for humans exposed by inhalation (Reitz *et al.*, 1990).

Several anecdotal reports have appeared in which adverse health effects due to chronic dioxane exposure are described. Barber (1934) described dioxane exposed factory workers, some of whom exhibited signs of liver changes, increased urinary protein and increased white blood cell counts, and some of whom died from apparent acute exposures. Although the kidney and liver lesions were considered manifestations of acute exposure, the author suggested a chronic component that was manifested by increased white blood cells. A case was reported in which a worker, who died following exposure by inhalation and direct skin

contact to high (unspecified) dioxane levels, exhibited lesions in the liver, kidneys, brain and respiratory system. However, the effects could not be easily separated from the effects due to high intake of alcohol (Johnstone, 1959).

In a German study (Thiess *et al.*, 1976 / in German, described in NIOSH, 1977) 74 workers exposed to dioxane in a dioxane-manufacturing plant (average potential exposure duration - 25 years) underwent evaluation for adverse health effects. Air measurements indicated dioxane levels varied from 0.01 to 13 ppm. Clinical evaluations were applied to 24 current and 23 previous workers. Evidence of increased (i.e., abnormal) aspartate transaminase (also known as serum glutamate-oxalacetic transaminase or SGOT), alanine transaminase (serum glutamate pyruvate transaminase or SGPT), alkaline phosphatase, and gamma glutamyltransferase activities (liver function) was noted in these workers, but not in those who had retired. The indicators of liver dysfunction, however, could not be separated from alcohol consumption or exposure to ethylene chlorohydrin and/or dichloroethane.

A follow-up mortality study was conducted on 165 chemical plant manufacturing and processing workers who were exposed to dioxane levels ranging from less than 25 to greater than 75 ppm between 1954 and 1975 (Buffler *et al.*, 1978). Total deaths due to all causes, including cancer, did not differ from the statewide control group, but the data were not reanalyzed after removing the deaths due to malignant neoplasms. The study is limited by the small number of deaths and by the small sample number. The study did not assess hematologic or clinical parameters that could indicate adverse health effects in the absence of mortality.

Yaqoob and Bell (1994) reviewed human studies on the relationship between exposure to hydrocarbon solvents - including dioxane - and renal failure, in particular rare glomerulonephritis. The results of their analysis suggest that such solvents may play a role in renal failure, but dioxane was not specifically discussed. Of interest to the discussion on chronic exposure to dioxane is the suggestion that the mechanism of the disease process involves local autoimmunity with decreased circulating white blood cells (see below).

V. Effects of Animal Exposure

In rats, the major metabolite of dioxane is HEAA, which is excreted through the kidneys (Braun and Young, 1977). Exposure to dioxane by ingestion results in saturation of metabolism above 100 mg/kg given in single dose. Saturation of metabolism was also observed as low as 10 mg/kg if dioxane was administered in multiple doses. Dioxane itself is not cleared through the kidney. A decrease in metabolic clearance with increasing dose (iv) has been interpreted as the saturation of metabolism at the higher doses (Young *et al.*, 1978).

For Sprague-Dawley rats, the metabolic fate of inhaled dioxane (head only exposure) was based on one air concentration (50 ppm). At this level, nearly all the dioxane was metabolized to HEAA since HEAA represented 99 percent of the total dioxane + HEAA measured. The plasma half-life for dioxane under these conditions was 1.1 hours. The absorption of dioxane through the inhalation pathway could not be exactly determined, because of a high inhalation rate (0.24 liters/min), calculated on the basis of complete absorption (Young *et al.*, 1978; U.S. EPA, 1988). Although the high inhalation rate could be dioxane-related, another explanation may be the stress incurred when the jugular veins were cannulated as part of the experiment. Extensive absorption by inhalation is also inferred from the high tissue/air partition coefficients (Reitz *et al.*, 1990).

Although the PBPK modeling suggests that in rat the parent dioxane is a better dose surrogate than HEAA for exposure by ingestion, the inhalation modeling did not use more than one inhalation dose. No studies were located on the biological or biochemical properties of HEAA or the properties of the enzyme(s) that are responsible for the transformation of dioxane into HEAA.

Rats (Wistar) were exposed by inhalation to dioxane (111 ppm; 7 hours/day, 5 days/week) for 2 years (Torkelson *et al.*, 1974). Increased mortality and decreased body weight gains, compared to unexposed control rats, were not observed. Among the male rats, decreased blood urea nitrogen (kidney function), decreased alkaline phosphatase (cholestatic liver function), increased red blood cells, and decreased white blood cells were observed. According to the authors, exposure-related, non-cancerous tissue lesions were not observed during the 2-year period.

In another inhalation study, rats were exposed to dioxane at levels of 0.15, 1.3, and 5.7 ppm (Pilipyuk *et al.*, 1978). Frequency was not specified, but the duration is given as “90 successive days”. At the end of the 3-month exposure, increased SGOT activity at the two highest doses and increased SGPT activity at all doses were measured in the sera of the exposed rats. Rats exposed to the highest dose also exhibited increased urinary protein and chloride levels, each of which returned to control levels during an unspecified recovery period. Pilipyuk *et al.* (1978) also report changes in the minimum time (ms) required for an electric stimulus to result in excitation of extensor and flexor muscles. Although Pilipyuk *et al.* (1978) consider the changes to be a reflection of adverse effects due to exposure to dioxane, Torkelson *et al.* (1974) do not consider the hematologic and clinical changes of toxicologic importance. In particular, toxic manifestations are usually associated with increased blood urea nitrogen and alkaline phosphatase levels, whereas these levels decreased in the Torkelson *et al.* (1974) investigation. The reason for the discrepancies between the two studies, in particular the extremely low dioxane exposure levels in the Pilipyuk *et al.* (1978) study, is unknown. One explanation could be the purity of the dioxane used, which was not described in the latter study, although such contamination would be unlikely to account for the large difference in exposure levels.

Kociba *et al.* (1974) exposed rats (Sherman) to dioxane by ingestion of drinking water for up to 2-years. The drinking water levels were 0, 0.01, 0.1, and 1.0 percent, which were converted to daily intake according to measured rates of water consumption during exposure. Exposure to the highest level resulted in decreased body weight gain and increased deaths. According to the authors, exposure related hematologic changes did not occur. Histopathologic examination revealed evidence of regeneration of hepatic and kidney tissues in rats exposed to 1.0 or 0.1 percent, but not in rats exposed to 0.01 percent dioxane. On the assumption of total absorption of dioxane from the gastrointestinal tract, the exposure levels in female and male rats is as follows: 0.01%-18 ppm/F, 9.3 ppm/M; 0.1% -144 ppm/F, 91 ppm/M.

The teratogenic potential of dioxane was studied in rats (Giavini *et al.*, 1985). Dioxane was administered by gavage at doses of 0, 0.25, 0.5, and 1.0 ml/kg-day, on gestation days 6-15, and observations continued through day 21. Dams exposed to the highest dose exhibited nonsignificant weight loss and a significant decrease in food consumption during the first 16 days. During the remaining 5 days, food consumption increased, but the weight gain reduction in the presence of dioxane continued. At the 1.0 ml/kg-day dose, mean fetal weight and ossified sternebrae were also reduced. The inability to separate the developmental toxicity from maternal or embryotoxicity renders these data inconclusive as to the developmental toxicity of dioxane. If toxicity to the dam and/or embryo exists, the NOAEL for dioxane (based on density = 1.03 gm/ml) is 517 mg/kg-day.

VI. Derivation of Chronic Reference Exposure Level (REL)

<i>Study</i>	Torkelson <i>et al.</i> (1974)
<i>Study populations</i>	Rats
<i>Exposure method</i>	Discontinuous inhalation
<i>Critical effects</i>	No effects on liver, kidney, or hematologic function were noted in this study. Such dysfunctions, however, were observed in rats exposed to dioxane by ingestion (Kociba <i>et al.</i> 1974) and humans (Thiess, <i>et al.</i> , 1976, described by NIOSH, 1977).
<i>LOAEL</i>	Not observed in inhalation studies
<i>NOAEL</i>	111 ppm
<i>Exposure continuity</i>	7 h/d x 5 days/wk
<i>Average experimental exposure</i>	23 ppm (111 x 7/24 x 5/7)
<i>Human equivalent concentration</i>	23 ppm (gas with systemic effects, based on RGDR = 1.0 using default assumption that lambda (a) = lambda (h))
<i>Exposure duration</i>	2 years
<i>LOAEL uncertainty factor</i>	1
<i>Subchronic exposure</i>	1
<i>Interspecies uncertainty factor</i>	3
<i>Intraspecies uncertainty factor</i>	10
<i>Cumulative uncertainty factor</i>	30
<i>Inhalation reference exposure level</i>	0.8 ppm (800 ppb; 2.8 mg/m ³ ; 3000 µg/m ³)

The lifetime rat inhalation study of Torkelson *et al.* (1974) is the only detailed inhalation study available in the literature. The Pilipyuk *et al.* (1977) study contains useful and consistent data, but the absence of necessary details prevents the use of these results for the determination of a chronic reference exposure level (REL). Although the ingestion study (Kociba *et al.*, 1974) shows unequivocal toxic responses (liver and kidney) of the rat to dioxane by ingestion, exposure to 111 ppm by inhalation leads to equivocal results (Torkelson *et al.*, 1974). In particular, serum markers for liver and kidney dysfunction decrease in value, whereas toxic responses are associated with increased levels. The lack of toxic hematologic endpoints observed in the ingestion study suggests that toxicity of dioxane may be route-of-exposure specific. Hematologic changes were also observed in the early worker study wherein changes in white blood cell count occurred (Barber, 1934), but the directions are different. The studies on humans and rodents therefore suggest inhalation of dioxane may lead to adverse biologic effects, but good dose-response data are not available. A partial explanation may lie in the dose-response characteristic of the metabolism of dioxane, wherein toxicity may be a function of the saturation of metabolism. For inhalation, neither the point of saturation nor the mechanism has been established. Importantly, the end-point for dioxane chronic exposure may not be established.

VII. Data Strengths and Limitations for Development of the REL

Although a free-standing NOAEL is not a desirable parameter to use for the development of a chronic REL, other studies support the conclusion that exposure to dioxane leads to adverse health effects. These observations have been documented among experimental animals (Kociba *et al.*, 1974; Pilipyuk *et al.*, 1977) and humans (Thiess *et al.*, 1976, described in NIOSH, 1977). Until additional data from inhalation dose-response studies become available, a chronic REL based on the free-standing NOAEL is considered the best available.

The strength of the REL for 1,4-dioxane is that it is based on a full lifetime study, with a large number of toxic endpoints and a good sample size. The weaknesses include use of a free standing NOAEL, the limited human data, and the lack of developmental studies.

VIII. References

- Barber H. 1934. Haemorrhagic nephritis and necrosis of the liver from dioxane poisoning. *Guy's Hospital Report*. 84:267-280.
- Braun WH, and Young JD. 1977. Identification of β -hydroxyethoxyacetic acid as the major urinary metabolite of 1,4-dioxane in the rat. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 39:33-38.
- Buffler PA, Wood SM, Suarez MS, and Kilian DJ. 1978. Mortality follow-up of workers exposed to 1,4-dioxane. *J. Occup. Med.* 20:255-259.
- CARB. 1999. Air toxics emissions data collected in the Air Toxics Hot Spots Program CEIDARS Database as of January 29, 1999.
- CRC. 1994. CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 75th edition. Lide DR, ed. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press Inc.
- Giavini W, Vismara C, and Broccia ML. 1985. Teratogenesis study of dioxane in rats. *Toxicol. Lett.* 26:85-88.
- Grant R, and Grant C. 1987. Grant and Hackh's Chemical Dictionary. R. Grant and C. Grant, eds. 5th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. p. 189.
- HSDB. 1995. Hazardous Substances Data Bank. National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD (TOMES® CD-ROM version). Denver, CO: Micromedex, Inc. (edition expires 7/31/95).
- HSDB. 1999. Hazardous Substances Data Bank. Available online at <http://sis.nlm.nih.gov>
- Johnstone RT. 1959. Death due to dioxane? *AMA Arch. Ind. Health.* 20:445-447.
- Kociba RJ. 1974. Chronic toxicity study of dioxane in the drinking water of Sherman rats. Midland, MI: Dow Chemical Company.
- NIOSH. 1977. Criteria for a Recommended Standard. Occupational Exposure to Dioxane. National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, Centers for Disease Control, Public Health Service, Department of Health Education and Welfare. Publication No. 77-226.
- Pilipyuk ZI, Gorban GM, Solomin GI, and Gorshunova AI. 1977. Toxicology of 1-4-dioxane. *Space Biology and Aerospace Medicine.* 11:70-74. (translated from Russian).
- Reitz RH, McCroskey PS, Park CN, Andersen ME, and Gargas ML. 1990. Development of a physiologically based pharmacokinetic model for risk assessment with 1,4-dioxane. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 105:37-54.
- Thiess AM, Tress E, Fleig I. 1976. [Industrial-medical investigation results in the case of workers exposed to dioxane.] (Ger.) *Arbeitsmed. Sozialmed. Praventivmed.* 11:35-46.
- Torkelson TR, Leong BKJ, Kociba RJ, Richter WA, and Gehring PJ. 1974. 1,4-Dioxane. II. Results of a 2-year inhalation study in rats. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 30:287-298.
- U.S. EPA (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency). 1988. Recommendations for and Documentation of Biological Values for Use in Risk Assessment. Chapter 4. Cincinnati, OH: United States Environmental Protection Agency.
- Yaqoob M, and Bell GM. 1994. Occupational factors and renal disease. *Renal Failure.* 16:425-434.

Young JD, Braun WH, and Gehring PJ. 1978. Dose-dependent fate of 1,4-dioxane in rats. J. Toxicol. Environ. Health. 4:709-726.

Young JD, Braun WH, Gehring PJ, Horvath BS, and Daniel RL. 1976. 1,4-Dioxane and β -hydroxyethoxyacetic acid excretion in urine of humans exposed to dioxane vapors. Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol. 38:643-646.

Young JD, Braun WH, Rampy LW, Chenoweth MB, and Blau GE. 1977. Pharmacokinetics of 1,4-dioxane in humans. J. Toxicol. Environ. Health. 3:507-520.